JOURNAL
OF THE
WASHINGTON ACADEMY OF SCIENCES
VOL. V JANUARY 19, 1915 No. 2

ASTROPHYSICS.—*A comparison of stellar radiometers and radiometric measurements on 110 stars.*[1] W. W. COBLENTZ, Bureau of Standards.

In this paper experiments are described showing that there is but little difference in the radiation sensitivity of stellar thermocouples constructed of bismuth-platinum, and thermocouples of bismuth-bismuth + tin alloy, which have a 50 per cent higher thermoelectric power. Improvements in the method of maintaining a vacuum by means of metallic calcium are described whereby it will be possible to go to the remotest stations for making radiation measurements without carrying an expensive vacuum pump. With this outfit measurements were made on the radiation from 112 celestial objects, including 105 stars. This includes measurements on the bright and the dark bands of Jupiter (also a pair of his satellites), the rings of Saturn, and a planetary nebula. Quantitative measurements were made on stars down to the 5.3 magnitude; and high grade qualitative measurements were made on stars down to the 6.7 magnitude. It was found that red stars emit from 2 to 3 times as much total radiation as blue stars of the same photometric magnitude.

Measurements were made on the transmission of the radiations from stars and planets through an absorption cell of water. By this means it was shown that, of the total radiation emitted, the

[1] Detailed paper to appear in the Bulletin of the Bureau of Standards.

blue stars have about two times as much radiation as the yellow stars, and about three times as much radiation as the red stars, in the spectral region to which the eye is sensitive.

A stellar thermocouple and a bolometer were compared and the former was found to be the more sensitive. The conclusion arrived at is that, from the appearance of the data at hand, greater improvements are to be expected in stellar thermocouples than in stellar bolometers.

The object of the investigation was to obtain some estimate of the sensitivity required in order to be able to observe spectral energy curves of stars. The radiation sensitivity of the present apparatus was such that, when combined with a 3-foot reflecting telescope, a deflection of 1 mm. would have resulted when exposed to a candle placed at a distance of 53 miles. In order, however, to do much successful work on stellar spectral energy curves, a sensitivity one hundred times this value is desirable. In other words, assuming that the rays are not absorbed in passing through the intervening space, the radiometric equipment (radiometer and mirror) must be sufficiently sensitive to detect the radiation from a candle removed to a distance of five hundred miles. This can be accomplished by using a 7-foot mirror and by increasing the sensitivity of the present radiometer (thermocouple and galvanometer) twenty times. This increase in sensitivity is possible.

Measurements were made to determine the amount of stellar radiation falling upon 1 cm^2 of the earth's surface. It was found that the quantity is so small that it would require the radiations from *Polaris* falling upon 1 cm^2 to be absorbed and conserved continuously for a period of one million years in order to raise the temperature of 1 gram of water 1°C. If the total radiation from all the stars falling upon 1 cm^2 were thus collected and conserved it would require from 100 to 200 years to raise the temperature of 1 gram of water 1°C. In marked contrast with this value, the solar rays can produce the same effect in about one minute.

CRYSTALLOGRAPHY.—*A new crystal-grinding goniometer.* FRED. E. WRIGHT, Geophysical Laboratory.

In the measurement of the change of crystallographical and optical properties of crystals with change of temperature or of pressure it is essential that the crystal faces be flat and correctly located; also that the optical sections and prisms be accurately oriented and ground. Natural crystals with faces sufficiently perfect for such work are exceedingly rare and the observer is

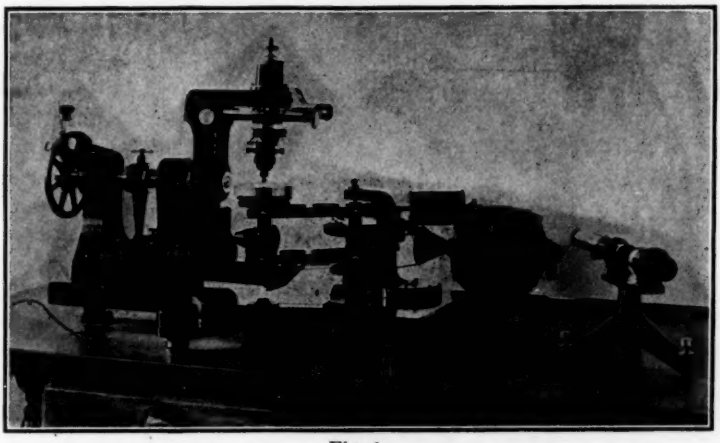

Fig. 1

usually forced to regrind and polish certain of the faces and often to add new faces of definite orientation. This postulates an instrument of precision for the purpose. Several crystal-grinding goniometers have been described heretofore,[1] and of these the

[1] Wolz, M., Jahrb. f. Min., **2**: 243–246. 1888.
Fuess, R., Jahrb. f. Min., **2**: 181–185. 1889.
Wülfing, E. A., Zeitschr. f. Kryst., **17**: 445–459. 1890; Jahrb. f. Min., **2**: 1–22. 1901.
Tutton, A. E. H., Crystalline Structure and Chemical Constitution, **25–35**: 1910; Phil. Trans., *A*, **185**: 887. 1895; **192**: 457. 1899; Proc. Roy. Soc. **57**: 324. 1895.
Stöber, F., Bull. Ac. Belge, (3) **33**: 843–858. 1897.
Goldschmidt, V., Zeitschr. Kryst., **51**: 358. 1912.
Wulff, G., Zeitschr. Kryst., **36**: 22. 1902; **50**: 14–16. 1913.

Goldschmidt two-circle type is the latest and best in principle. The present instrument is also based on the theodolite principle, but it is essentially different in design and construction from its predecessors; certain features of the Goldschmidt design have, however, been incorporated in it. With the new grinding goniometer crystal faces can be ground with a precision of 1′ or greater, and flat within a wave length of light; plane-parallel crystal plates can

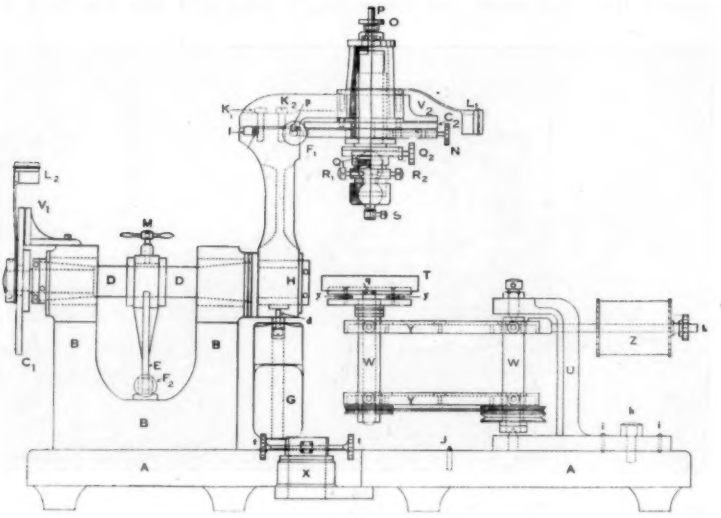

Fig. 2

also be ground normal to any given optical direction, as an ellipsoidal axis (α, β, or γ) or an optic axis. The instrument has been in use for over half a year and has proved so satisfactory in routine work that a brief description may be of interest.

The grinding goniometer was designed and constructed[2] with special reference to adjustment facilities and to precision. All of the working parts are heavy and all bearing surfaces are wide

[2] The instrument was built in the instrument shop of this Laboratory by Mr. J. Jost, to whose skill and ingenuity much of its success is due. The writer is also indebted to Dr. C. N. Fenner and Mr. J. H. Snapp for a thorough test of the grinding and polishing devices and materials which are used on the goniometer.

and accurately fitted. There are four essential parts, as indicated in figures 1, 2, and 3: (a) telescope (fig. 3a); (b) two-circle theodolite arrangement for holding and measuring crystals (fig. 2); (c) grinding plate (fig. 2); (d) optical system of an axial angle apparatus mounted on a special tripod (fig. 3b). A brief description of these parts will now be given.

The telescope (fig. 3a) is fitted with an autocollimating device[3] which consists of a strip of thin cover-glass of the shape indicated in figure 3e; this is placed in the rear focal plane of the telescope objective *O*. Light from a small tungsten lamp is sent through the plate to the inclined edge of the cover-glass, where it is totally reflected and passes thence through the objective and prism to the crystal plate, whence it is reflected back through the lens system and appears then, when viewed through the eyepiece, as a sharp bright line in the dark field. Settings are made by covering the bright line by the reflecting edge of the glass slip, so that the field becomes practically dark. A transverse etched line across the center of the reflecting edge serves as reference point for the setting. In place of the transverse line two short cover glasses, separated slightly and so mounted that their reflecting edges form a straight line, have been used to advantage. The images due to reflection from the faces of the telescope prism (*X*, fig. 3a) are easily eliminated by mounting the prism in slightly tilted position so that the rays reflected from its faces reach the image plane outside the field of the positive eyepiece *E*. The

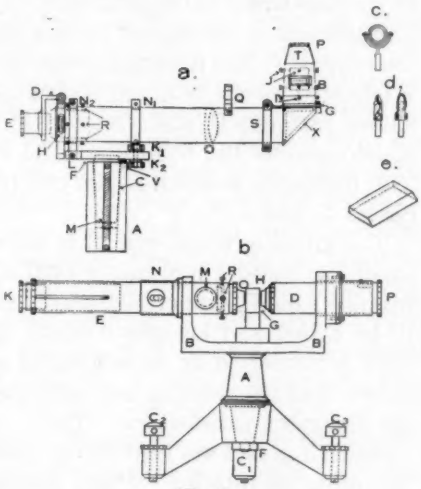

Fig. 3

[3] F. E. Wright, this Journal, **4**: 235. 1913.

intensity of illumination secured by this device is similar to that of the Abbe refractometer slit, while the accuracy of settings is considerably better than that of the angular readings, namely, $\frac{1}{4}'$. The telescope is mounted on a vertical rotating axis and can be raised by means of a pin and ratchet movement. (X, fig. 2, M, fig. 3a.) Enlarged signals are obtained by means of objective O with eyepiece E; reduced signals, by objective P and objective O; images of the crystal surface, by means of objective O alone, or by objective P + objective O + eyepiece E. This telecentric arrangement of the optical system has been found well suited to the purpose. The mounted crystal is held by the clamp S (fig. 2), is adjusted by the ball and socket device R, is centered by the sliding carriages Q, and is moved up and down by the screw P which operates the triangular steel stem indicated in the figure. The theodolite position-angles can be read directly to $\frac{1}{4}'$ on the circles C_1 and C_2.[4]

The grinding wheel (fig. 2) is driven slowly (200 r.p.m.) by a small low speed $\frac{1}{4}$ h.p. motor (400 r.p.m.), and is mounted on a rotating axis W, supported between arms Y which allow the wheel to be raised and lowered without tilting. The grinding wheel itself is supported on an adjustable steel block. Experience has shown that for grinding and polishing purposes block-tin wheels are the most satisfactory. Three or more such wheels are in constant use and are kept flat by grinding them, the one against the other, in rotation. Pitch wheels have also been used for polishing purposes but they are apparently not greatly superior to the tin disks and are more troublesome to prepare. The grinding disk is adjusted normal to its axis of rotation by means of light rays reflected either from the upper surface of the wheel itself or from a plane-parallel optical glass plate 3 inches in diameter placed on top of the grinding disk. Only the finest abrasives are used, crystolon or alundum 65 F of the Norton Company, or washed emery M 303 of the American Optical Company. Polishing powders are: washed rouge, putty powder, and chromium oxide. These polishing powders are not equally good for

[4] These circles were specially graduated by Bausch & Lomb Optical Company; no error approaching $\frac{1}{4}'$ in magnitude has been detected in the graduations.

a given crystal and only an actual test can show which powder is the best for a particular crystal. By use of the counter weight Z (fig. 2) the pressure of the grinding disk against the crystal can be regulated.

(d) The attachment for the orientation of optical sections is the optical system of Wülfing's axial angle apparatus mounted on a tripod (fig. 3b) which fits in place on three hardened steel points. The crystal or fragment from which a plane-parallel, optically oriented plate is to be ground is mounted on a special holder (fig. 3d) by means of which the fragment is first strapped into place by a copper wire or belt and then cemented. On the goniometer the crystal is immersed in a liquid of its refractive index β; this eliminates in large measure the disturbing reflections at the irregular surfaces of the crystal grain. In this form the grinding goniometer serves all the functions of an axial angle apparatus and has the additional advantage that on it the angle which a given optical direction includes with a given crystallographical direction can be obtained directly from the position-angles of the two directions. After the crystal has been properly set so that the desired optical direction is observed, the axial angle apparatus is removed, the arm of the goniometer is rotated 90° on the horizontal axis D, and the grinding disk is swung into place.

Adjustment of the goniometer. The goniometer is in adjustment when: (1) the horizontal and vertical axes of rotation (D D and P S, fig. 2) are at right angles and intersect at a point; (2) the axis of the telescope is vertical and intersects the above point; (3) the axis of the grinding plate is vertical; (4) the axis of the optical system of the axial angle attachment is horizontal, but normal to the horizontal axis of the goniometer, and intersects the above point.

In the adjustment of the goniometer it is essential that a definite plan, like that outlined below, be followed so that each successive adjustment does not interfere with those preceding. The adjustment is facilitated by the use of two small attachments: (a) a mounted minute glass bead obtained by melting the end of a fine glass thread, and (b) a plane parallel plate

mounted so that it can be rotated about a horizontal axis (fig. 3c).[5] The different possible lens combinations are: (*A*) *For viewing crystal surfaces:* (1) Objective *O* alone; (2) objective P+ objective *O*+ eyepiece *E*. (*B*) *For viewing reflection signals:* (1) Objective *O*+ eyepiece *E;* (2) objective *P*+ objective *O*.

SYSTEMATIC ADJUSTMENT

(a) *Adjustment of telescope.* (Fig. 3a)

(1) Use lens combination *B*1. Illuminate reflecting edge of cover glass prism at *H* (fig. 3*a*) and center same by placing a flat glass plate on telescope-mount above prism *X* and then bringing reflected image of edge to coincidence with edge itself.

(2) Mount reflecting glass plate (fig. 3*c*) in *S* (fig. 2) so that edge of plate is normal to axis *D D*. Adjust telescope axis normal to axis *D D* by means of adjustment screws *K* and *I* and test adjustment by noting that the image obtained by reflection from either side of the glass plate coincides with the reflecting cover-glass edge. This is accomplished by rotating the glass plate about the horizontal axis *D D*.

(3) Center telescope by means of eccentric stop screw at *H*.

(4) Center and adjust in similar manner the reducing attachment *P* to the positions just obtained. Use adjustment screws, *Q*, *R*, *S* for the purpose.

(*b*) *Adjustment of axis P S*

(1) Adjust axis *P S* (fig. 2) normal to axis *D D* by means of mounted glass plate (fig. 3*c*) so turned that its reflecting surface is normal to axis *P S*. Axis is adjusted when signal observed in telescope (lens combination *B*1) remains stationary during rotation of glass plate about axis *P* and coincides with reflecting edge of cover-glass prism. Adjustment screws are K_1, K_2 in conjunction with wedge shaped, hardened steel bar *I* which is moved forward by means of the flanged screw *f*.

The tilting is done on the steel axis at *p*. (2) Center axis *P S* to intersection of axis *D D* by means of minute glass bead mounted on pin inserted in *S* (fig. 2). Use lens combination *A*1. When properly centered by means of eccentric fitting on axis *D D* (clamped by screw *d*, fig. 2) the centered glass bead remains stationary on rotation about axis *D D* or axis *P S*.

(*c*) *Adjustment of grinding plate*

(1) Adjust grinding plate *T* normal to axis of rotation *W* by means of screws *y*, figure 2. Adjustment is attained when a distant object, as seen by reflection from the top surface of the plate, remains stationary on rotation of the plate about axis *W*. In case the surface of the tin grinding disk does not reflect light adequately, an optically plane-parallel glass plate, 3 inches in diameter, is placed on top of the grinding disk and furnishes a satisfactory reflection of the distant object.

[5] Goldschmidt, V., Zeitschr. Krist., **29**: 342. 1898.

(2) Adjust axis *W* of grinding plate by means of three screws *i* in the base-plate support (fig. 2). Adjustment is accomplished when a crystal face ground and polished by the wheel is in the position indicated by the telescope. This part of the adjustment usually involves the grinding and polishing of several crystal faces before the correct position is attained, but, as the grinding and polishing of each face takes less than 10 minutes' time, the time loss is not serious.

(*d*) *Adjustment of the axial angle apparatus*

(1) Use glass plate (fig. 3*c*) so mounted that its edge is parallel to axis *P S* and is vertical. The correct horizontal position is first ascertained by means of telescope and lens combination *B*1 after which axis *P S* of goniometer is turned through 90° to vertical position.

(2) Place axial angle apparatus (fig. 3*b*) in position and test direction of axes by use of autocollimation at *M*. Adjust by means of screws *C* and clamping screw *F* until axis of telescope is normal to glass plate. Cross-hairs should be vertical and horizontal. Test by rotating glass plate about vertical axis *P S* and horizontal axis *D D*.

(3) Center if necessary by means of mounted glass bead and screws *C*. Retest adjustment after centering.

FORESTRY.—*The place of forestry among natural sciences.*[1] HENRY S. GRAVES, Forest Service.

In an old forest magazine, *Sylvan*, is a story about Germany's great poet, Karl von Schiller. Schiller, taking rest at Illmenau, Thuringen, met by chance a forester who was preparing a plan of management for the Illmenau forest. A map of the forest was spread out on which the cuttings for the next 220 years were projected and noted with their year number. By its side lay the plan of an ideal coniferous forest which was to have materialized in the year 2050. Attentively and quietly the poet contemplated the telling means of forest organization, and especially the plans for far distant years. He quickly realized, after a short explanation, the object of the work and gave vent to his astonishment:

> I had considered you foresters a very common people who did little else than cut down trees and kill game, but you are far from that. You work unknown, unrecompensed, free from the tyranny of egotism, and the fruit of your quiet work ripens for a late posterity. Hero and poet attain vain glory; I would like to be a forester.

[1] Paper delivered before the Washington Academy of Sciences on December 3, 1914.

An opinion not unlike that held by Schiller before meeting with the forester still commonly prevails in scientific circles in this country. It is quite generally believed that foresters are pure empiricists; something on the order of gardeners who plant trees, of range-riders who fight forest fires, or lumbermen who cruise timber, carry on logging operations or manufacture lumber and other forest products; that for whatever little knowledge of a scientific character the forester may need in his work, he depends on experts in other branches of science; on the botanists for the taxonomy of the trees, on physicists, chemists, and engineers for the proper understanding of the physical, chemical, and mechanical properties of the wood; on the geologist and soil physicist for the knowledge of sites suitable for the growth of different kinds of trees; upon the plant pathologist for the diseases of trees; upon the entomologist for the insect enemies of the forest, and so on.

Such an impression is undoubtedly strengthened when the activities of such an organization as the Forest Service are considered. The placing under management of about 165 million acres of forest land has been an administrative problem of enormous magnitude. The administration of this vast public property involves many large industrial and economic questions, and affects intimately a number of varied and important interests: the lumber industry, the grazing industry, water power development, navigation, municipal water supplies, agricultural settlement, mining development, and the railroads. In launching this great public enterprise, undertaken in the face of strong opposition, administrative activities appeared to overshadow research work. In this way doubtless many scientific men have gained the impression that forestry has little to do with science, which seeks for the causal relationship of things and for the establishment of laws and principles; that forestry is rather a patch work of miscellaneous knowledge borrowed from other sciences and assembled without particular system to help the practical administrator of forest property.

My endeavor in this paper will be to show that this impression is erroneous. While it is true that forestry as an art, as an applied

science, utilizes results furnished by the natural and engineering sciences; while it is also true that the forester's activities—particularly during the pioneer period of establishing forest practice—may be largely administrative in character; there is nevertheless a fundamental forest science which has a distinctive place. As with all others, the science of forestry owes its distinctive character to its correlation, from a certain point of view, of parts of certain other sciences, such as mathematics, botany, entomology, civil engineering, and chemistry. But these are only auxiliary to the resultant science—forestry—which rests upon a knowledge of the life of the forest as such, and which therefore depends upon the discovery of laws governing the forest's growth and development.

It is in this field chiefly that foresters may claim some scientific achievement, some contribution to general science. Sciences do not develop out of curiosity; they appear first of all because there are practical problems that need to be solved, and only later become an aim in themselves. This has been equally true of the science of forestry. The object of forestry as an art is to produce timber of high technical quality. In pursuing this object, the forester very early observed that tall, cylindrical timber, comparatively free of knots, is produced only in dense stands, in forests in which the trees exert an influence upon each other as well as upon the soil and climate of the area occupied by them. He further discovered that the social environment produced by trees in a forest is an absolutely essential condition for the continuous natural existence of the forest itself. If the forester had not found forests in nature, he would have had to create forests artificially in order to accomplish his practical purpose, since it is only through the control and regulation of the natural struggle for existence between trees in the forest that the forester is capable of managing it for the practical needs of man. Thus from the very nature of his dealings with the forest, the forester was forced from the beginning to consider the forest not merely as an aggregation of individual trees but as communities of trees—tree societies—and first from purely utilitarian reasons, developed a science upon which the practice of silviculture now rests.

Forestry as a natural science, therefore, deals with the forest as a community in which the individual trees influence one another and also influence the character and life of the community itself. As a community the forest has individual character and form. It has a definite life history; it grows, develops, matures, and propagates itself. Its form, development and final total product may be modified by external influences. By abuse it may be greatly injured and the forest as a living entity may even be destroyed. It responds equally to care and may be so molded by skillful treatment as to produce a high quality of product, and in greater amount and in a shorter time than if left to nature. The life history of this forest community varies according to the species composing it, the density of the stand, the manner in which the trees of different ages are grouped, the climatic and soil factors which affect the vigor and growth of the individual trees. The simplest form of a forest community is that composed of trees of one species and all of the same age. When several species and trees of different ages occupy the same ground, the form is more complex, the crowns overlapping and the roots occupying different layers of the soil. Thus, for instance, when the ground is occupied with a mixed stand of Douglas fir and hemlock, the former requiring more light, occupies the upper story, and because of its deeper root system extends to the lower lying strata of the soil. The hemlock, on the other hand, which is capable of growing under shade, occupies the under story, and having shallow roots utilizes largely the top soil.

These are forest communities, such for instance as those typical of northwestern Idaho, where western larch, Douglas fir, western white pine, white fir, western red cedar, and hemlock all grow together. Such a forest is evidently a very complex organism, the stability of which is based on a very nice adjustment between the different classes and groups occupying the same ground. Any change in one of these classes or groups must necessarily affect the other. If, for instance, in the Douglas fir-hemlock forest, the Douglas fir is cut out, the remaining hemlock trees are likely to die out because their shallow roots are left exposed to the drying effect of the sun and wind. It is only by a thorough

understanding of such mutual adjustments that the forester is capable of intelligently handling the forest. With the great number of species that are found in this country, with the great variety in climatic and other physical factors which influence the form of the forest, it is self-evident that there are many forest communities, each with distinctive biological characteristics, which offer a wide field for scientific inquiry. Amid the great volume of administrative phases of the work in the Forest Service this main objective has never been lost sight of in handling the National Forests. The Forest Service is now spending nearly $300,000 annually for research work; it maintains eight forest experiment stations and one thoroughly equipped forest products laboratory, and is doing this work solely to study the fundamental laws governing the life of the forest and their effect upon the final product—wood.

Forestry may be called tree sociology and occupies among natural sciences the same position as sociology among humanistic sciences. Sociology may be based upon the physiological functions of man as a biological individual. A physician, however, is not a sociologist, and social phenomena can be understood and interpreted only in the light of sociological knowledge. So also with forestry. Forestry depends upon the anatomy and physiology of plants, but it is not applied anatomy and physiology of plants. With foresters, anatomy and physiology of plants is not the immediate end but enters only as one of the essential parts without which it is impossible to grasp the processes that take place in the forest.

As the science of tree societies, forestry really is a part of the larger science dealing with plant associations, yet its development was entirely independent of botanical geography. When the need arose for the rational handling of timberlands, no science of plant association was in existence. Foresters were compelled to study the biology of the forest by the best methods available; they used the general scientific methods of investigation and developed their own methods when the former proved inadequate. I am frank to admit that the present knowledge of plant associations in botany has not yet reached a point where

foresters could leave wholly to botanists the working out of the basic facts about the life of the forest which are needed in the practice of forestry. When the general science of plant associations has reached a higher state of development, the two may possibly merge, but not until then.

In developing the science of tree associations, the forester has been unquestionably favored by the fact that the forests, being the highest expression of social plant life, afford the best opportunity for observing it.

The reason for the ability of forest trees to form most highly organized plant societies lies in their mode of growth. Each annual ring of growth, together with the new leaves that appear every year, is in reality new colonies of cells. Some of the cells die toward the end of the vegetative season; others continue to live for a number of years. When the conditions of life in a forest have changed for a certain tree, when, for instance, from a dominant tree it became a suppressed one, the new colonies of cells formed during that year, and which sustain the life of that tree, are naturally adapted to these new conditions. The same is true when a suppressed tree, through some accident to its neighbors comes into full enjoyment of light. The last annual growth is at once capable of taking advantage of the new situation created in the forest. Therefore, as long as a tree can form annual rings, it possesses the elasticity and adaptability essential for trees living in dense stands. It is only when a tree is suppressed to a point when it can not form new growth that it dies and is eliminated from a stand.

Because of the fact that the forest is the highest expression of social plant life, the foresters occupy the stragetic position from which they command vistas accessible only with difficulty to other naturalists. In this lies the strength of forestry, its peculiar beauty, and the debt which natural science owes to it. It is a significant fact, although, of course, only of historic importance, that, according to Charles Darwin[2] himself, it was "an obscure writer on forest trees who, in 1830, in Scotland (that is, 29 years before the *Origin of Species* was published), most expressly and

[2] Origin of species.

clearly anticipated his views on natural selection in a book on Naval Timber and Arboriculture." For the same reason it was foresters, who, long before the word "ecology" was coined, had assembled a vast amount of material on the life of the forest as a plant association—the basis of their silvicultural practice. Warming, Schimper, and other early writers on ecology, borrowed most of their proofs and examples from the facts established by the foresters, and the forest literature of today is still practically the only one which contains striking examples of the application of ecology to the solution of practical problems.

One discovery recently made at the Wind River Forest Experiment Station in Oregon comes particularly to my mind. In northwestern Idaho where the western white pine is at its optimum growth and is greatly in demand by the lumberman, our former method of cutting was to remove the main stand and leave seed trees for the restocking of the ground. In order to protect the seed trees from windfall, they were left not singly but in blocks, each covering several acres. The trees left amounted often to from 10 to 15 per cent in volume of the total stand, and since they could not be utilized later they formed a fairly heavy investment for reforesting the cutover land. A study of the effect of these blocks of seed trees upon natural reforestation has proved that they can not be depended upon, at least within a reasonable time, to restock naturally the cutover land. The distance to which the seed is scattered from these seed trees is insignificant compared with the area to be reforested. Splendid young growth, however, is found here and there on cutover land, away from any seed trees, where the leaf litter is not completely burned. It is evident, therefore, that the seed from which this young growth originates must have come from a source other than the seed trees. The study of the leaf litter in a virgin stand showed that the latter contained on the average from one to two germinable seed per square foot. Some of the seed found was so discolored that it must have been in the litter for a long time. Thus it was discovered that the seed of the western white pine retains its vitality for years while lying in the duff and litter beneath the mature stands, and then germinates when the ground

is exposed to direct light by cutting. It was found similarly that in old Douglas fir burns, where the leaf litter was not completely destroyed, the young growth invariably sprung up from seed that had escaped fire and had been lying dormant in the ground. Should a second fire go through the young stand before it reaches the bearing stage, the land may become a complete waste, at least for hundreds of years, although there may be seed trees left on the ground. This conclusively proves that the young growth comes from the seed stored in the ground before cutting took place and not from the seed scattered after cutting by the seed trees left.

The wonderful capacity of the leaf litter and duff of the cool, dark forests of the Northwest to act as a storage medium for the seed until favorable conditions for its germination occur is confined not only to the Douglas fir and western white pine but to the seed of other species which often grow together with them, such as Noble fir, amabilis fir, western red cedar, and hemlock. The subsequent appearance of other species in a Douglas fir or western white pine stand depends apparently to a large extent upon the seed stored in the ground at a time when the original forest still existed. This discovery revolutionizes our conception of the succession of forest stands, since it shows that the future composition of the forest is determined by the seed stored in the leaf litter; and the appearance of seedlings first of one species and then of another results simply from the differences in the relative endurance of seed of the different species that are lying in the ground. Besides being of scientific importance this discovery has also a great practical significance. It accentuates the disastrous consequence of a second fire in an old burn because no more seed remains in the ground while the capacity of the few seed trees that may be on the burn is very limited in restocking the ground. This discovery enabled the Service to change materially the present methods of cutting in the white pine and Douglas fir forests, to the mutual advantage of the Government and of the logging operators.

I shall give briefly a few other illustrations of the life of the forest which stamp it as a distinct plant society.

The first social phenomenon in a stand of trees is the differentiation of individuals of the same age on the basis of differences in height, crown development, and growth, the result of the struggle for light and nourishment between the members of the stand. A forest at maturity contains scarcely 5 per cent of all the trees that have started life there. Yet the death of the 95 per cent is a necessary condition to the development of the others. The process of differentiation into dominant and suppressed trees takes place particularly in youth and gradually slows down toward maturity. Thus, in some natural pine forests, during the age between 20 to 80 years, over 4,000 trees on an acre die; whereas at the age between 80 to 100 only 300 trees die. With some trees this natural dying out with age proceeds faster than with others. Thus in pine, birch, aspen, and all other species which demand a great deal of light, the death rate is enormous. With spruce, beech, fir, and species which are satisfied with less light, this process is less energetic. The growing demand for space with age by individual trees in a spruce forest may be expressed in the following figures:

At	20	years	of	age	4 sq. ft.
"	40	"	"	"	34 " "
"	60	"	"	"	70 " "
"	80	"	"	"	110 " "
"	100	"	"	"	150 " "

If we take the space required by a pine at the age between 40 and 50 years as 100: then for spruce at the same age it will be 87; for beech 79; and for fir 63. This process of differentiation is universal in forests everywhere.

Another peculiarity that marks a tree community is the difference in seed production of trees which occupy different positions in the stand. Thus if the trees in a forest are divided into five classes according to their height and crown development, and if the seed production of the most dominant class is designated as 100, the seed production for trees of the second class will be 88; for the third class, 33; for the fourth class only 0.5 per cent, while the trees of the fifth class will not produce a single seed,

although the age of all these trees may be practically the same. The same struggle for existence, therefore, which produced the dominant and suppressed trees works toward a natural selection, since only those which have conquered in the struggle for existence, and are endowed with the greatest individual energy of growth, reproduce themselves.

In a forest there is altogether a different climate, a different soil, and a different ground cover than outside of it. A forest cover does not allow all the precipitation that falls over it to reach the ground. Part of the precipitation remains on the crowns and is later evaporated back into the air. Another part, through openings in the cover, reaches the ground, while a third part runs down along the trunks to the base of the tree. Many and exact measurements have demonstrated that a forest cover intercepts from 15 to 80 per cent of precipitation, according to the species of trees, density of the stand, age of the forest, and other factors. Thus pine forests of the north intercept only about 20 per cent, spruce about 40 per cent, and fir nearly 60 per cent of the total precipitation that falls in the open. The amount that runs off along the trunks in some species is very small—less than 1 per cent. In others, for instance beech, it is 5 per cent. Thus if a certain locality receives 50 inches of rain, the ground under the forest will receive only 40, 30, or 20 inches. Thus 10, 20, and 30 inches will be withdrawn from the total circulation of moisture over the area occupied by the forest. The forest cover, besides preventing all of the precipitation from reaching the ground, similarly keeps out light, heat, and wind. Under a forest cover, therefore, there is altogether a different heat and light climate, and a different relative humidity than in the open.

The foliage that falls year after year upon the ground creates deep modification in the forest soil. The changes which the accumulation of leaf litter and the roots of the trees produce in the soil and subsoil are so fundamental that it is often possible to determine centuries after a forest has been destroyed, whether the ground was ever occupied by one.

The effect which trees in a stand have upon each other is not

confined merely to changes in their external form and growth; it extends also to their internal structure. The specific gravity of the wood, its composition, and the anatomical structure which determines its specific gravity differ in the same species, and on the same soil, and in the same climate, according to the position which the tree occupies in the stand. Thus in a 100-year-old stand of spruce and fir the specific gravity of wood is greatest in trees of the third crown class (intermediate trees). The ratio of the thick wall portion of the annual ring to the thin wall of the spring wood is also different in trees of different crown classes. The difference in the size of the tracheids in trees of different crown classes may be so great that in one tracheid of a dominant tree there may be placed three tracheids cells of a suppressed tree. The amount of lignin per unit of weight is greater in dominant trees than in suppressed trees.

Forest trees in a stand are thus influenced not only by the external physical geographical environment, but also by the new social environment which they themselves create. For this reason forest trees assimilate, grow, and bear fruit differently and have a different external appearance and internal structure than trees not grown in a forest.

Forestry, unlike horticulture or agriculture, deals with wild plants scarcely modified by cultivation. Trees are also long-lived plants; from the origin of a forest stand to its maturity there may pass more than a century. Foresters, therefore, operate over long periods of time. They must also deal with vast areas; the soil under the forest is as a rule unchanged by cultivation and most of the cultural operations applicable in arboriculture or agriculture are entirely impracticable in forestry. Forests, therefore, are largely the product of nature, the result of the free play of natural forces. Since the foresters had to deal with natural plants which grew under natural conditions, they early learned to study and use the natural forces affecting forest growth. In nature the least change in the topography, exposure or depth of soil, etc., means a change in the composition of the forest, in its density, in the character of the ground cover, and so on. As a result of his observations, the forester has developed

definite laws of forest distribution. The forests in the different regions of the country have been divided into natural types with corresponding types of climate and site. These natural forest types, which, by the way, were also developed long before the modern conception of plant formations came to light, have been laid at the foundation of nearly all of the practical work in the woods. A forest type became the silvicultural unit which has the same physical conditions of growth throughout and therefore requires the same method of treatment. The manner of growth and the method of natural regeneration, once developed for a forest type, hold true for the same type, no matter where it occurs. After the relation between a certain natural type of forest and the climate and topography of a region has been established, the forest growth becomes the living expression of the climatic and physical factors of the locality. Similarly, with a given type of climate and locality it is possible for the forester to conceive the type of forest which would grow there naturally. The forester, therefore, may speak of the climate of the beech forest, of the Engelmann spruce forest, of the yellow pine forest. Thus, if in China, which may lack weather observations, we find a beech forest similar to one found in northern New York, we can be fairly certain of the climatic similarities of the two regions. More than that, a type of virgin forest growth may serve as a better indication of the climate of a particular locality than meteorological records covering a short number of years. A forest which has grown on the same ground for many generations is the result not of any exceptional climatic cycle, but is the product of the average climatic conditions that have prevailed in that region for a long time. It expresses not only the result of one single climatic factor, but is the product of all the climatic and physical factors together. Similarly, the use of the natural forest types for determining the potential capacity of the land occupied by them for different purposes is becoming more and more appreciated. When the climatic characteristics of a certain type of forest, for instance those of Engelmann spruce in the Rocky Mountains, is thoroughly established, the potential capacity of the land occupied by it for agriculture, grazing, or other purposes is also largely determined.

Observations of the effect of climate upon forest growth naturally brought out facts with regard to the effect of forests upon climate, soil and other physical factors and led to the development of a special branch of meteorology, known as forest meteorology, in which the foresters have taken a prominent part. While there are some phases in forest meteorology which still allow room for disagreement, some relationships established by foresters are widely accepted. One of these is the effect which forests have upon local climate, especially that of the area they occupy and of contiguous areas. Every farmer who plants a windbreak knows and takes advantage of this influence. Another relation is that between the forest and the circulation of water on and in the ground, a relation which plays such an important part in the regimen of streams. Still a third one, as yet beyond the possibility of absolute proof, is the effect of forests in level countries, in the path of prevailing winds, upon the humidity and temperature of far-distant regions lying in their lee.

If in the field of botany the forester has contributed to the progress of botanical geography and in the realm of meteorology has opened new fields of investigation, his influence in wood technology has been in changing entirely the attitude of engineers, physicists and chemists in handling wood products. The methods of studying the physical, mechanical and chemical properties of wood were, of course, those used in engineering by chemists and physicists; but the forester has shown that wood, unlike steel, concrete, or other structural material, is subject to altogether different laws. Wood, he has shown, is not a homogeneous product, but is greatly influenced by the conditions in the stand from which it comes. Were it not, therefore, that mechanical properties can be tied up with some definite forest conditions and correlated with some readily visible expression of tree growth, such as the number of rings per inch or the specific gravity of the wood, timber would be too much of an indefinite quantity for architects and other users of wood to handle with perfect safety. To find such a relation is just what the foresters have been attempting to do, and most of the studies of the strength of wood have been with the view of establishing certain relations between

the mechanical, physical, and amatomical properties of the wood. Some of these relations I may mention here.

One of the earliest relations which foresters have established with a fair certainty is that between the specific gravity of the wood and its technical qualities. Some of the foresters even go so far as to claim that the specific gravity of wood is an indicator of all other mechanical properties and that the strength of wood increases with the specific gravity, irrespective of the species and genus. In other words, the heavier the wood, all other conditions being equal, the greater its strength. Even oak, which formed apparently an exception, has been recently shown to follow the same law. If there is still some doubt that the specific gravity of wood can be made a criterion of all mechanical and technical properties of wood, the correlation between the specific gravity and the resistance to compression end-wise (parallel to the grain) is apparently beyond question. Thus by the specific gravity the resistance to compression end-wise can be readily determined. The compression end-wise equals 1000 times the specific gravity minus 70, when the moisture content of the wood is 15 per cent, or $C = 1000\ S - 70$.

Since in construction work the most desirable wood is the one which possesses the highest strength at a given weight, the ratio between the compression strength and the specific gravity was found to express most clearly the strength of wood. This ratio, however, increases with the increase in the specific gravity, a fact which further substantiates the law that the specific gravity of wood determines its mechanical properties.

Another relation which has been fairly established is that between the resistance to compression end-wise and the bending strength of timber. By the resistance compression end-wise, therefore, the bending strength of timber can be determined.

One of the other properties of wood, namely hardness, was found to have a definite relation to the bending and compression strength of wood and this fact tempts the conclusion that by hardness alone all other mechanical properties can be determined. The test for hardness is very simple: it can be made even by a small manufacturer and therefore the whole problem

of wood testing would be greatly simplified. Hardness was also found to have a definite relation to the proportion of the summer wood in the annual ring, and consequently to the specific gravity of the wood. The specific gravity of wood is determined by its anatomical structure, by the proportion of fibro-vascular bundles, their thickness and length, the proportion of thick-walled cells, medullary rays, etc. The anatomical structure in its turn is probably determined by the combination of two factors,—the amount of nourishment in the soil and the intensity of transpiration. The mechanical properties of wood come, therefore, within the control of the forester who raises and cares for the forest.

There is another field of scientific endeavor in which foresters in this country may claim some credit. This is in the field of forest mathematics. One unfamiliar with forest growth can hardly realize the difficulties in the way of measuring the forest crop, the amount of wood produced in a forest composed, for instance, of many different species, sizes, and ages. If a tree resembled any geometric body, such as a truncated cone, or an Appolonian paraboloid, it would be a simple matter to determine its contents by applying the formula for such body. But a tree's form does not coincide with that of any known geometric body, so that it would seem that the only possible way of determining the contents of the trees forming a forest would be by measuring each single tree. Evidently this would be an entirely impracticable task.

The common practice of determining the contents of trees either in board measure or in cubic feet is to measure a large number of trees of a given species in a given locality and apply the average figures to the trees of the same diameters and heights within that locality. Since there are, however, a great many species of trees in this country, some of which have a very wide geographic range, this method necessarily involves the preparation of a large number of local volume tables and hence the measurement of hundreds of thousands of trees. The measurement of the taper of a larger number of trees has shown that there are certain critical points along the stem of a tree, the

ratio between which expresses the form of the tree in a sufficiently accurate manner. It was found that trees having the same total height, the same diameter breasthigh (4½ feet from the ground) and the same ratio between the diameter at half the height of the tree and the diameter breasthigh, must invariably have the same cubic contents irrespective of the species of the tree or the region in which it grows. Thus whether it be a Scotch pine of northern Sweden, a yellow pine of Arizona, a mahogany of the tropics, or a scrubby birch of the Arctic Circle, the volume of the tree may be expressed by means of one simple relationship. The discovery of this very simple relation provides, for the first time, a basis for the construction of a universal volume table. The mathematicians of the earlier period sought in vain to find a formula by which the cubic contents of a tree could be expressed. What the mathematicians failed to develop by the deductive method, foresters have found by the inductive method. With a reliable table for converting cubic measure into board measure for trees of different sizes, the universal volume table expressed in cubic feet could be translated into a universal table expressed in board feet, which is the measure peculiar to this country.

There is another contribution of which I am somewhat hesitant to speak, for it is not a contribution to pure science, if by science is meant only the physical or natural sciences. Since, however, it touches the interests of a large number of people, I may be forgiven if I say a few words about it. It is a contribution to what one economist has aptly called the "science of social engineering." The transfer of the forest reserves in 1905 to the Department of Agriculture marked a new departure in the national economic life. It recognized the new principle that the Nation's resources should be managed by the Nation and directly in the interests of the whole people; it recognized that these resources should be developed collectively rather than individually and indirectly. Nearly ten years have now passed since the inauguration of this policy. The record of what has been accomplished and the manner in which many of the problems have been approached and solved must unquestionably

be considered a contribution to the methods by which similar problems may be handled by the Nation in the future. In the administration of the National Forests there is being developed gradually what I believe to be a truly scientific system for attaining a concrete economic end, a system of controlling certain correlated industries with a single purpose in view—the maximum of the welfare of the Nation as a whole. In spite of many mistakes which we have undoubtedly made and which we have attempted to correct as we went along, in spite of the lack of practice and experience in solving the problems at hand, this new policy, it seems to me, has already proved to be entirely safe and workable.

BOTANY.—*A new genus of Chenopodiaceae,*[1] *from Arizona.* PAUL C. STANDLEY, National Museum.

While examining some sheets of Chenopodiaceae from the herbarium of the Missouri Botanical Garden not long ago the writer came upon one consisting of specimens of a low shrub, from northern Arizona, which in general appearance were exactly like *Grayia brandegei*; and being only in flower they were so labeled, although that species was not otherwise known from Arizona. The specimens were associated with this rare species quite naturally, for the writer knew there was no other described member of the Chenopodiaceae in the Southwest that was similar in general aspect.

More recently Mrs. Walter Hough has generously presented to the U. S. National Museum an interesting collection of plants, gathered chiefly in northern Arizona in 1896 and 1897. While inspecting the sheets of this accession the writer's attention was drawn to one which at once recalled the specimen just mentioned. This second one, however, was in mature fruit and showed clearly that the plant was no Grayia. Careful examination definitely placed it as a member of the Atripliceae, but as scarcely referable to any known genus. While, unfortunately, this curious shrub is known only from pistillate branches, the staminate flowers

[1] Published by permission of the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution.

in this group of the Chenopodiaceae are of so little taxonomic importance—being singularly uniform through all the genera of the tribe—that the writer has no hesitation in making it the basis of a new genus, named in honor of the discoverer. Its characters are discussed below.

Zuckia Standley, gen. nov.

Low erect shrubs, with a copious covering of whitish inflated trichomes. Leaves numerous, alternate, petiolate, the blades flat, entire. Flowers dioecious, the pistillate ones sessile, solitary or in small glomerules forming short interrupted naked paniculate spikes, each flower bibracteolate, the bractlets accrescent in age, united except for a small aperture at the depressed apex, slightly inflated, thin, depressed vertically, 6-carinate vertically, 2 of the keels broader than the others and winglike; perianth none. Ovary depressed-globose; stigmas 2, filiform, exserted, connate at the base. Utricle included in the bracts, the pericarp membranaceous. Seed horizontal, the testa membranaceous; embryo annular, surrounding the copious endosperm; radicle centrifugal.

Type species, *Zuckia arizonica* Standley.

Zuckia arizonica Standley, sp. nov.

Plants 1.5–4 dm. high, fruticose nearly throughout, copiously branched, the branches slender, erect, striate, the older ones gray or brown, the younger ones stramineous and densely furfuraceous; leaf blades oblong-oblanceolate or spatulate-oblanceolate, or the uppermost linear-oblanceolate, 10–20 mm. long, 1.5–7 mm. wide, obtuse to acutish at the apex, attenuate at the base to a short stout petiole, thick and somewhat coriaceous, grayish-furfuraceous; pistillate spikes much interrupted, divaricate, forming nearly naked panicles 5–12 cm. long and 2–6 cm. wide; fruiting bractlets 4–5 mm. broad, densely furfuraceous, the 6 keels acute, two of them usually 1–1.5 mm. wide and winglike; utricle furfuraceous; seed orbicular, compressed, 2 mm. in diameter, yellowish brown, dull.

Type in the U. S. National Herbarium, no. 694799, collected at Chalcedony Park (the Petrified Forest), eighteen miles southeast of Holbrook, Arizona, October 15, 1897, by Miss Myrtle Zuck (Mrs. Walter Hough). Also collected at Adamana, Arizona, in early August, 1903, by Dr. David Griffiths, no. 5085 (Mo. Bot. Gard. no. 46127). The type is in mature fruit and the second specimen in flower.

The genus Zuckia is a member of the tribe Atripliceae, subtribe Atriplicinae, as defined by Volkens.[2] It is difficult to tell to which of the included genera it is most closely related. In the key given by Volkens it would run to either Spinacia or Suckleya. Certainly

[2] In Engl. and Prantl, Nat. Pflanzenfam. 3^{1a}: 62. 1893.

Zuckia is not very closely related to the species of Spinacia, which are glabrous annuals with indurated bracts, 4 or 5 stigmas, and vertical seeds. Suckleya, too, is an herbaceous plant with strongly obcompressed bracts and vertical seeds. Only two other genera are included in the subtribe Atriplicinae: Endolepis and Atriplex. Endolepis has been included in Atriplex by most authors, but it seems to the writer sufficiently distinct in having a perianth in the pistillate flowers, a character which, along with its vertical seeds, also separates it from Zuckia.

Apparently this new genus is most closely related to Atriplex, but in the latter the bracts are never wholly united; at least the tips are always free, and commonly the bracts are distinct at least to the middle, often nearly or quite to the base. In Zuckia they are wholly united, and at the depressed apex there is only a very small aperture through which the styles are exserted. In only a small group of Atriplex species—the subgenus Dichospermum Dum., which contains the type of the genus, *A. hortensis*—are horizontal seeds found. In these species there are two kinds of pistillate flowers on each plant: some with vertical seeds inclosed by two distinct bracts, and others with horizontal seeds inclosed in a regular herbaceous calyx. In Zuckia all the pistillate flowers are alike, having the horizontal seed included in the somewhat inflated bracts, with no calyx present. As already noted, Zuckia bears a superficial resemblance to *Grayia brandegei*, the two being almost exactly alike in habit and leaf form; but the species of Grayia have a copious pubescence of small branched hairs, and, of course, the structure of the pistillate flowers and the fruit is very different.

Zuckia is evidently a very distinct genus and one of the most remarkable members of the whole tribe. That it was not found by some of the earlier collectors who visited this region is rather strange, but doubtless attributable to the circumstance that the two localities whence it now comes are in a part of Arizona in which comparatively little collecting has been carried on. This and the fact that so much critical attention has been given recently to the Chenopodiaceae, without the discovery of this new generic type, lead to the belief that Zuckia is generally wanting in herbaria. Its rediscovery and collection in adequate amount for distribution will be a matter of much interest; for, while many new genera have been proposed in recent years for United States plants removed from well known genera, the opportunity rarely arises of establishing a genus of phanerogams upon a plant previously quite unknown.

ABSTRACTS

Authors of scientific papers are requested to see that abstracts, preferably prepared and signed by themselves, are forwarded promptly to the editors. Each of the scientific bureaus in Washington has a representative authorized to forward such material to this journal and abstracts of official publications should be transmitted through the representative of the bureau in which they originate. The abstracts should conform in length and general style to those appearing in this issue.

GEOLOGY.—*Carnotite near Mauch Chunk, Pennsylvania.* EDGAR T. WHERRY. U. S. Geological Survey Bulletin 580-F. Pp. 147–151. 1914.

The location, history, geology, composition, origin, and commercial value of the deposit are briefly discussed. The results of a new analysis are given, the potassium being much higher than the calcium and the usual carnotite ratio of V: U = 1: 1 being shown.

E. T. W.

MINERALOGY.—*Notes on wolframite, beraunite, and axinite.* EDGAR T. WHERRY. Proceedings of the U. S. National Museum, **47**: 501. 1914.

Analyses of two specimens of wolframite and the calculated mineral compositions are given. The convenience of chemical prefixes for the end members of isomorphous series is illustrated by the adoption of the following nomenclature: Ferrowolframite, $FeWO_4$; manganowolframite, $MnWO_4$; calcioscheelite, $CaWO_4$; magnesioscheelite, $MgWO_4$; cuproscheelite, $CuWO_4$; ferrotantalite, $Fe(TaO_3)_2$; manganotantalite, $Mn(TaO_3)_2$; ferrocolumbite, $Fe(CbO_3)_2$; and manganocolumbite, $Mn(CbO_3)_2$.

A ferric phosphate from Hellertown, Pennsylvania, showed wide variations in composition, although it agreed in physical features with beraunite. The variations may be explained by considering the material a meta-colloid: In the original colloid condition it was an adsorption compound of the constituent oxides and water; but, when it attained its present form, the adsorbed constituents united as well as they could into definite compounds, which formed mix-crystals.

A supposed new mineral from Avondale, Pennsylvania, proved to be axinite containing intergrown zoisite.

E. T. W.